

1 **Fermented dairy foods rich in probiotics and cardiometabolic risk factors: a narrative**
2 **review from prospective cohort studies**

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25 Word count: 5603 words.

26 **Abstract**

27 Probiotic foods, including fermented dairy (FD) products such as yogurt and cheese, naturally
28 contain live microorganisms, but the relationship between the consumption of probiotic foods
29 and health is unclear. The aim of the present narrative review is to integrate the available
30 information on the relationship between the most studied FD products, which are yogurt and
31 cheese, and cardiometabolic risk factors obtained from meta-analysis, systematic reviews of
32 prospective cohort studies (PCSs) and PCSs published up to 2 November 2019. Additionally,
33 the effects identified by randomized controlled trials of less-studied FD products, such as
34 kefir and kimchi, on cardiometabolic risk factors are provided. PCSs have shown that the
35 consumption of cheese, despite its high saturated fat content, is not associated with expected
36 hypercholesterolemia and an increased cardiovascular risk. PCSs have revealed that the total
37 consumption of FD appears to be associated with a lower risk of developing stroke and
38 cardiovascular disease. The consumption of yogurt seems to be associated with a lower risk of
39 developing type 2 diabetes. There is a lack of sufficient evidence of a protective relationship
40 between FD or cheese consumption and metabolic syndrome. Moreover, the association of
41 FD, cheese and yogurt with hypertension needs further evidence.

42 In conclusion, the intake of fermented foods containing probiotics, particularly yogurt and
43 cheese (of an undetermined type), opens up new opportunities for the management of
44 cardiometabolic risk factors.

45 *Keywords: probiotics, fermented dairy products, type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease*

46

47 **Introduction**

48 Probiotics are live microorganisms that, when administered at an adequate quantity, can
49 modulate the gut microbiome and confer health benefits to the host (Parvez et al. 2006;
50 Toscano et al. 2017). The usual routes for the administration of probiotics are a in powder or
51 capsule or inclusion in a dairy product or other food matrix (Toscano et al. 2017); however,
52 probiotics are also present in natural form as a result of fermentation, as in the case of dairy
53 foods (Gille et al. 2018).

54 Fermented foods contain one or more probiotics; these are dominated by lactic acid bacteria,
55 including *Lactobacillus*, but the fermentation process also includes other bacteria and yeasts
56 (Gille et al. 2018).

57 However, the presence of bacteria and yeast does not always result in a probiotic food or
58 beverage; for example, the yeast in bread is heat-inactivated, and the bacteria in wine and beer
59 are removed by filtration (Rezac et al. 2018).

60 Thus, to consider a food or beverage probiotic, the bacteria must be resistant to gastric acid,
61 bile salts and enzymes and be able to bind to the epithelium of the small intestine in sufficient
62 quantity (more than 10^6 - 10^7 colony-forming units (CFUs)/mL at the time of consumption) to
63 exert probiotic activity (Ranadheera et al. 2017).

64 A source for the generation of probiotics is the food fermentation process, which focuses on
65 improving the organoleptic qualities of the food, decreasing spoilage, increasing the available
66 consumption time and modifying nutritional properties (Xiang et al. 2019); however, the
67 available information on fermentation as a source of probiotic food and its relationship with
68 cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors is inconclusive (Xiang et al. 2019). The potential
69 inherent benefits associated with the intake of fermented foods might be due to their probiotic
70 activity and/or biogenic elements in the host. Biogenic elements are aspects of live organisms
71 and are necessary for the development of the probiotic itself. The basic biogenic compounds

72 are carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen, as well as other molecules and constituents
73 acquired during the fermentation process (Gille et al. 2018; Rezac et al. 2018).
74 Fermented foods are good vehicles for supplying probiotics to the digestive system and can
75 modify and improve the composition of gut microbiota, in which *Bacteroidetes* and
76 *Firmicutes* are predominant (>90% of the total intestinal microbial population) (Marco et al.
77 2017). Information regarding the role of the gut microbiota in association with risk factors for
78 cardiometabolic diseases, such as diabetes and CVD, which result in high morbidity and
79 mortality throughout the world (Muñoz-Garach et al. 2016; W.H. Wilson Tang et al. 2017), is
80 scarce. The known cardiometabolic risk factors include obesity, high serum concentrations of
81 low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), high serum triglyceride levels, reduced serum
82 concentrations of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), hypertension and insulin
83 resistance (Comanys et al. 2020; Guo et al. 2017; Tapsell 2015; Thushara et al. 2016). The
84 population impact of cardiometabolic factors was estimated to equal 38% in 2018, and this
85 percentage increased to more than 60% in certain individuals, particularly women older than
86 65 years of age (Statista 2018). Among cardiometabolic risk factors, the gut microbiota can
87 present dysbiosis or alteration of the normal quantitative and/or qualitative balance, which is
88 characterized by an imbalance in the *Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes* ratio (a reduction in the
89 abundance of *Firmicutes* and an increase in the abundance of *Bacteroidetes*) (Han and Lin
90 2014). Dysbiosis can be modified through the oral administration of probiotics, as has been
91 demonstrated in RCTs (Borgeraas et al. 2018; Firouzi et al. 2013; Seganfredo et al. 2017; Yoo
92 and Kim 2016). Thus, the use of foods rich in probiotics to affect the gut microbiota balance
93 might be a strategy for the prevention or attenuation of cardiometabolic complications
94 (Comanys et al., submitted; Tapsell, 2015; Thushara et al., 2016; Rondanelli et al., 2017).
95 Based on the abovementioned results, the aim of the present narrative review is to integrate
96 the information available from prospective cohort studies (PCSs) on the relationship between

97 the regular consumption (daily/weekly) of the most frequently studied fermented dairy (FD)
98 foods that provide probiotics, such as yogurt and cheese, and cardiometabolic risk factors. In
99 addition, the effects of less-studied FD products, such as kefir and kimchi, on cardiometabolic
100 risk factors, as observed in randomized controlled trials (but not PCSs due to a lack of
101 previous studies on this subject), are described.

102 **Literature search**

103 The literature search used in the present narrative review was based on the general principles
104 published in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses
105 (PRISMA) guidelines (Moher et al. 2009). The PRISMA flowchart (**Supplementary Figure**
106 **1**) and checklist (**Supplementary Table 1**) were utilized.

107 **Search strategy**

108 The bibliographic review for the present narrative review was performed in PubMed
109 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed>). The following MeSH terms were used for the
110 literature search named of fermented foods, such as a “fermented dairy”, “cheese”, and
111 “yogurt”, in combination with “cardiovascular disease” and “cardiovascular risk factors”
112 using the connector “AND”. Articles were selected if they described meta-analyses,
113 systematic reviews or PCSs that assessed the relationship between FD intake and CVD. The
114 search included studies published up to 2 November 2019.

115 **Data collection and extraction**

116 **Table 1.** Levels of evidence for the association between fermented dairy product consumption
117 and cardiometabolic risk factors based on the present narrative review of the results from
118 meta-analyses, systematic reviews of PCSs and PCSs. The level of risk (low, uncertain or
119 neutral) in the reported relationships between total FD, cheese and yogurt consumption and
120 cardiometabolic risk factors is provided.

121 **Selection of included studies**

122 The authors identified 251 articles from the PubMed database and included six articles
123 obtained from a review of the references of the retrieved articles. After removing duplicate
124 articles, the authors screened the titles and abstracts of 184 articles, and ultimately, a total of
125 21 articles were included in the present narrative review.

126 **Total FD, cardiometabolic risk factors and mortality in PCSs**

127 FD foods, including yogurt and cheese, are heavily consumed by the general population (Guo
128 et al. 2017). Recommendations for dairy intake make no distinction between the consumption
129 of fermented or unfermented foods and note the importance of eating at least three servings of
130 dairy foods (e.g., milk, yogurt, cheese, and kefir) per day due to their important nutritional
131 role in calcium metabolism and their high levels of protein with high biological quality,
132 independent of their probiotic contents and their potential cardiometabolic benefits (Britten et
133 al. 2012).

134 Some PCSs did not distinguish, between the types of FD products consumed, and thus, all of
135 those studies were included in the “fermented dairy” category. For this reason, the authors
136 have included the available information for all FD products. The information obtained from
137 the meta-analyses, systematic reviews of PCSs and PCSs evaluating the relationship between
138 cardiometabolic risk factors and the consumption of all FD products is presented in **Table 1**.

139 ***Total mortality risk and consumption of FD.*** A meta-analysis that included 29 PCSs
140 with 938,465 participants and a follow-up between 5 and 15 years revealed an inverse
141 association between the total consumption of all FD products and all-cause mortality, an
142 increased FD consumption was associated with a 2% in decreased in risk (RR 0.98, 95% CI:
143 0.97 to 0.99, $I^2 = 94.4\%$) (Guo et al. 2017).

144 *CVD and stroke risk and consumption of FD.* A meta-analysis of 29 PCSs with
145 938,465 participants and 28,419 patients with coronary heart disease (CHD) found an inverse
146 association between the total consumption of FD products, including sour milk, cheese or
147 yogurt, and the risk of CVD [an increase in consumption of 20 g/d was associated with a 2%
148 reduction in risk, (RR 0.98, 95% CI: 0.97 to 0.99, $I^2 = 87.5\%$)] (Guo et al. 2017).
149 Additionally, a meta-analysis of 15 PCSs that included 28,138 stroke events and 764,635
150 participants aged 30 to 103 years was also included (Hu et al. 2014). This study revealed that
151 the total consumption of fermented milk products resulted in a significant risk reduction of
152 20% (RR 0.80, 95% CI: 0.71 to 0.89, $I^2 = 0.00\%$) and that cheese consumption was associated
153 with a significant reduction in stroke risk of 6% (RR 0.94, 95% CI: 0.89 to 0.99, $I^2 = 0.00\%$)
154 (Hu et al. 2014).
155 However, another PCS that included the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and
156 Nutrition-Netherlands cohort, which comprised 34,409 Dutch men and women aged 20-70
157 years who were free of CVD or cancer at baseline (Praagman et al. 2015), did not provide
158 consistent evidence regarding an association of total FD consumption with a decrease in total
159 mortality, and none of the subtypes of fermented foods showed significant benefits in terms of
160 total or cardiovascular mortality (Praagman et al. 2015).
161 Consistent with the abovementioned results of systematic reviews and meta-analyses, a
162 systematic review of PCSs that investigated the association of total dairy consumption with
163 CVD, coronary artery disease (CAD), stroke, hypertension, metabolic syndrome (MetS), and
164 type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2D) concluded that the consumption of various forms of FD
165 products had either a favorable or neutral relationship with cardiovascular-related clinical
166 outcomes, but this conclusion was based on limited and uncertain evidence (Drouin-Chartier
167 et al. 2016).

168 ***MetS risk and FD consumption.*** A meta-analysis of 11 PCSs examined the
169 association of the consumption of dairy products and/or different subtypes of dairy with the
170 risk of MetS, and the comparison of the highest and lowest categories revealed that total
171 yogurt consumption was associated with a 26% decrease in the risk of MetS (RR 0.74, 95%
172 CI: 0.66 to 0.82, $I^2 = 0.00\%$) (Mena-Sánchez et al. 2018). Thus, PCSs have revealed that the
173 consumption of all types of low-fat dairy products, milk, and yogurt is inversely associated
174 with the risk of MetS (Mena-Sánchez et al. 2018).

175 ***Hypertension risk and FD consumption.*** A systematic review of 9 PCSs found that,
176 only 4 studies reported data on FD intake. Based on a sample size of 7,641 volunteers and
177 2,475 hypertension cases and a follow-up time of 2 to 15 years, the consumption of total FD
178 (range intake \approx 84-201 g/d) was not statistically associated with the development of
179 hypertension (Soedamah-Muthu et al. 2012). The pooled relative hypertension risks per 150
180 g/d increase in consumption were [RR 0.99, 95% CI: 0.94 to 1.04, $I^2 =$ no data available
181 (NDA)] for total FD (Soedamah-Muthu et al. 2012).

182 ***Summary of PCS findings on total FD intake and cardiometabolic risk factors***

183 Total FD intake is associated with low risks of CVD and stroke, as demonstrated by different
184 systematic reviews and meta-analyses of PCSs. Moreover, as demonstrated in some studies,
185 FD consumption is associated with MetS. However, the limited data available from PCSs
186 cannot confirm any beneficial relationship of total FD with MetS (**Table 1**).

187 **Cheese, cardiometabolic risk factors and mortality in PCSs**

188 The dietary matrix of cheese involves a complex nutritional composition, which is
189 characterized by its composition of not only saturated fats (Ros et al. 2015) but also other
190 nutrients present in fermented cheese, such as probiotics, which can exert a protective effect
191 on CVD (Marco et al. 2017). Moreover, cheese is an excellent source of calcium and vitamin

192 D. Additionally, in fermented cheeses, andrastin A and the roquefortine exhibit
193 hypocholesterolemic capacity by inhibiting the farnesyl transferase enzyme, which
194 consequently inhibits cholesterol synthesis in the liver (Ros et al. 2015).
195 The andrastin A contents of some Spanish fermented cheeses, such as Cabrales, Valdeón and
196 Bejes-Tresviso, are similar to those found in other fermented Danish and French cheeses
197 (Fernández-Bodega et al. 2009), which could contribute to reduced cholesterol production.
198 Whether the greater consumption of cheese, which is rich in saturated fat, by the French
199 population is responsible for the so-called French paradox, which is defined by low
200 cardiovascular morbidity and mortality despite a high intake of saturated fat, is unclear
201 (Petyaev and Bashmakov 2012). The consumption of cured cheese has traditionally been
202 associated with deleterious effects on the lipid profile; however, the hypercholesterolemic
203 effect of saturated fatty acids is attenuated when these are provided through a food matrix
204 such as cheese (Nagpal et al. 2011). As a result, recent results from the European EPIC cohort
205 (European Prospective Investigation Into Cancer and Nutrition) of 409,885 men and women
206 in nine European countries measured lipids in a subsample during a mean follow-up of 12.6
207 years and found that the consumption of cheese was inversely associated with serum non-
208 high-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels (Key et al. 2019).

209 ***CVD risk and cheese consumption.*** Four meta-analyses of PCSs evaluated cheese
210 consumption and the risk of all-cause mortality, CHD or CVD (Alexander et al. 2016; Chen et
211 al. 2017; de Goede et al. 2016; Guo et al. 2017). One of these studies performed additional
212 individual analyses of cheese and found a 2% decrease in cardiovascular risk (RR 0.98, 95%
213 CI: 0.95 to 1.00, $I^2 = 82.6\%$) per 10-g increase in the daily intake of cheese (Guo et al. 2017).
214 Additionally, a meta-analysis of PCSs revealed that cheese consumption (50 g/d) was
215 inversely associated with CHD (RR 0.90, 95% CI: 0.84 to 0.95, $I^2 = 0.00\%$) (Chen et al.
216 2017). Moreover, a meta-analysis of 31 PCSs found that cheese intake was inversely and not

217 significantly associated with CHD (RR 0.82, 95% CI: 0.72 to 0.93, $I^2 = 0.0\%$) and stroke (RR
218 0.87, 95% CI: 0.77 to 0.99, $I^2 = 33.5\%$) (Alexander et al. 2016). Furthermore, a systematic
219 review and meta-analysis of 18 PCSs revealed that an increase in cheese consumption of 40
220 g/d was inversely associated with a nonsignificant 3% lower risk of stroke (RR 0.97, 95% CI:
221 0.94 to 1.01, $I^2 = 31.2\%$) (de Goede et al. 2016). In contrast, a meta-analyses of 18 PCSs
222 compared the highest and lowest rates of cheese consumption and found that the highest
223 consumption was associated with a 6% reduction in stroke risk (RR 0.93, 95% CI: 0.88 to
224 0.98, $I^2 = 86\%$) (Hu et al. 2014). Only one PCS with 24,474 participants compared the highest
225 quartile of consumption (224 g/d) with the lowest quartile (56 g/d), and it revealed that the
226 highest quartile was associated with lower total mortality (HR 0.92, 95% CI: 0.87 to 0.94, $I^2 =$
227 NDA) (Mazidi et al. 2018).

228 ***HDL-C levels, MetS risk and cheese consumption.*** The PCSs provided scarce
229 information on the association between HDL-C levels and MetS but found a cross-sectional
230 association between high cheese intake and higher HDL-C levels ($P_{\text{trend}} = 0.002$) (Sonestedt et
231 al. 2011).

232 ***T2D risk and cheese consumption.*** In two PCSs, cheese consumption was inversely
233 related to the risk of developing T2D (Sluijs et al. 2012), and a higher consumption of cheese
234 (higher than 55.7 g/d) was associated with a significant reduction of 70% in the risk of
235 developing T2D compared with the reduction associated with lower consumption (less than
236 32 g/d) (HR 0.30, 95% CI: 0.10 to 0.92, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$) (Hruby et al. 2017). Similarly, an
237 umbrella review of PCSs (Godos et al. 2019) and a PCS of 108,065 Swedish men and women
238 (Johansson et al. 2019) revealed that a greater intake of cheese tended to be associated with a
239 lower risk of developing T2D in both men and women (HR 0.79, 95% CI: 0.68 to 0.92, $I^2 =$
240 NDA).

241 **MetS and cheese consumption.** In a PCS of 1,868 men and women (aged 55-80
242 years) without MetS at baseline that formed part of the PREDIMED study, a median follow-
243 up of 3.2 years (Babio et al. 2015) revealed a higher MetS incidence among subjects with a
244 high intake of cheese (HR 1.31, 95% CI: 1.10 to 1.56, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$). Another PCS analyzed the
245 association between cheese consumption based on continuous variables and the risk of MetS
246 using data from the Epidemiological Study on Insulin Resistance Syndrome (DESIR) study,
247 which included 3,435 men and women who completed a food frequency questionnaire at
248 baseline and after 3 years; the results showed that a lower risk of MetS development (RR
249 0.82, 95% CI: 0.71 to 0.95, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$) was associated with a one-category increase in cheese
250 consumption (Fumeron et al. 2011). Moreover, higher cheese intake and calcium density were
251 associated with a lower increase in waist circumference and lower triglyceride levels. The
252 Calcium density was also found to be associated with a decrease in hypertension and a lower
253 9-year increase in plasma triglyceride levels. Thus, a higher consumption of dairy products
254 and calcium was associated with a lower 9-year incidence of T2D (Fumeron et al. 2011). A
255 meta-analysis comparing the highest and lowest categories was not performed (Mena-Sánchez
256 et al. 2018) because only one study was available for the analysis (Babio et al. 2015).

257 ***Summary of the findings of PCSs examining cheese intake and cardiometabolic risk***
258 ***factors***

259 Based on all the mentioned studies, the consumption of cheese, regardless of its fat content, is
260 associated with decreases in cardiovascular and stroke risks. Surprisingly, cheese intake had a
261 beneficial association with the risk of developing T2D. However, there is limited evidence to
262 support the presence of a protective relationship between cheese consumption and MetS, and
263 the association of cheese consumption with hypertension remains uncertain (Soedamah-
264 Muthu et al. 2012) (**Table 1**). However, dietary recommendations regarding the consumption

265 of cured cheeses, which have high sodium contents, are limited in cases of hypertension
266 (Pérez-Jiménez et al. 2018).

267 **Yogurt, cardiometabolic risk factors and mortality in PCSs**

268 Yogurt is a semisolid product of fermented milk that has been consumed for centuries and is
269 an important dietary source of nutrients such as calcium (Fernandez and Marette 2017).
270 Yogurt consumption is related to a healthy lifestyle (Tremblay and Panahi 2017). In
271 particular, yogurt is the most frequently evaluated FD product in observational studies
272 (Drouin-Chartier et al. 2016), which suggest the presence of a protective relationship between
273 yogurt consumption and CVD (Astrup 2014).

274 *All-cause mortality risk and yogurt consumption.* A meta-analysis of 29 PCSs
275 revealed that yogurt consumption was not associated with all-cause mortality (RR 0.97, 95%
276 CI: 0.85 to 1.11, $I^2 = 65.8\%$) (Guo et al. 2017).

277 *CVD, CHD and stroke risk and yogurt consumption.* The evidence generated by
278 systematic reviews and meta-analyses of PCSs of moderate quality showed a neutral
279 association between the consumption of yogurt and the risk of CVD, stroke or CHD
280 (Alexander et al. 2016; de Goede et al. 2016; Guo et al. 2017). Moreover, a meta-analysis of 9
281 PCSs involving a total of 291,236 participants showed that the consumption of ≥ 200 g/d of
282 yogurt was significantly associated with a lower risk of CVD compared with the consumption
283 of <200 g/day (Wu and Sun 2017). In contrast, a systematic review of 22 PCSs with 579,832
284 participants evaluated reductions in CVD risk but found nonsignificant results (Soedamah-
285 Muthu and de Goede 2018). Consistent with these results, a PCS with 24,474 participants,
286 revealed that yogurt consumption significantly reduced total CAD and stroke mortality (HR
287 0.88, 95% CI: 0.84 to 0.92, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$) (Mazidi et al. 2018). Recently, in the Prospective
288 Urban Rural Epidemiology (PURE) study, a large multinational PCS of individuals aged 35-
289 70 years in 21 countries on five continents, the dietary dairy intakes of 136,384 individuals

290 were recorded using validated, country-specific validated food frequency questionnaires.
291 Between between January 1, 2003, and July 14, 2018, 10,567 composite events (deaths
292 [n=6796] or major cardiovascular events [n=5855]) were recorded during the 9.1 years of
293 follow-up. This PCS showed that a higher intake of yogurt (>1 serving vs no intake) (RR
294 0.86, 95% CI 0.75 to 0.99; $I^2 = \text{NDA}$) was associated with a lower risk of the composite
295 outcome (death from cardiovascular causes, nonfatal myocardial infarction, stroke, or heart
296 failure) (Dehghan et al. 2018).

297 ***Hypertension risk and yogurt consumption.*** A systematic review of 9 PCSs, which
298 included a sample size of 57,256 participants, 15,367 incident hypertension cases, and a
299 follow-up time between 2 and 15 years, found no association between yogurt intake (10 to 79
300 g/d) and the incidence of hypertension (Soedamah-Muthu et al. 2012). In contrast, two
301 Nurses' Health Study (NHS) cohorts (n=69,298), the NHS II (n=84,368) and the Health
302 Professionals Follow-Up Study (HPFS, n=30,512) revealed that the consumption of at least
303 five servings of yogurt per week (vs. <1 serving per month) was associated with lower risks
304 of hypertension (HR 0.81, 95% CI: 0.75 to 0.87, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$, HR 0.83, 95% CI: 0.77 to 0.90, I^2
305 = NDA, and HR 0.94, 95% CI: 0.83 to 1.07, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$, respectively) (Buendia et al. 2018).
306 Moreover, the same study revealed that the consumption of at least five servings of yogurt per
307 week resulted in a 19% lower risk of hypertension (RR 0.81, 95% CI: 0.75 to 0.87, $I^2 = \text{NDA}$)
308 (Buendia et al. 2018).

309 ***MetS risk and yogurt consumption.*** A meta-analysis of 4 PCSs compared the highest
310 and lowest categories of yogurt consumption and found that the highest category was
311 inversely associated with the risk of MetS (RR 0.74, 95% CI: 0.66 to 0.82, $I^2 = 0.00\%$)
312 (Mena-Sánchez et al. 2018).

313 ***T2D risk and yogurt consumption.*** The results of a meta-analysis of 17 PCSs, with
314 426,055 participants found that higher consumption of yogurt was associated with a non-

315 significantly lower risk of T2D compared with a lower consumption of yogurt (RR 0.78, 95%
316 CI: 0.60 to 1.02; $I^2 = 70\%$) (Aune et al. 2013). The reduction in the risk of T2D observed in
317 meta-analyses of PCSs varied between 14% with a yogurt intake of 80 g/d compared with no
318 yogurt intake (Gijssbers et al. 2016) and 22% with a yogurt intake of 200 g/d (Aune et al.
319 2013).

320 The relationship between the potential protective role of yogurt consumption and the
321 prevention of T2D was corroborated in a recent review of 13 PCSs, which described an
322 inverse association between the frequency of yogurt consumption and the risk of developing
323 T2D (Salas-Salvadó et al. 2017).

324 ***Summary of the findings of PCSs on yogurt intake and cardiometabolic risk factors.***

325 The authors have updated the results from different meta-analyses and systematic reviews of
326 PCSs examining the relationship between yogurt consumption and risk factors for
327 cardiometabolic disease and mortality, and these data indicate that yogurt consumption can
328 reduce T2D risk. Further RCTs are needed to investigate the interesting negative association
329 between yogurt consumption and T2D obtained in PCSs (Panahi et al. 2017). In addition,
330 more evidence is needed to confirm the relationship between yogurt consumption and
331 reductions in hypertension and MetS, and the association between yogurt consumption and
332 reduced risks of CVD and stroke are not supported by sufficient evidence (**Table 1**).

333 **Kefir, cardiometabolic risk factors and mortality**

334 As mentioned above, PCSs have not reported an association between kefir and CVD mortality
335 or/and CVD risk factors. Kefir is a fermented milk product that originated in the Caucasus
336 and is produced by lacto-alcoholic fermentation induced by bacteria (e.g., *Lactobacillus*
337 *acidophilus*, *Lactobacillus kefirianofaciens*, and *Lactobacillus plantarum*) and yeasts (e.g.,
338 *Kluyveromyces marxianus* and *Candida kefir*). As a result, the fermented kefir produces
339 minimal amounts of lactic acid and alcohol (usually not exceeding 2%) (Rosa et al. 2017).

340 The high levels of probiotics in kefir can regulate the gut microbiota and exert an anti-
341 inflammatory effect mediated by their action on certain cytokines (Carasi et al. 2015; Kim et
342 al. 2019). In addition, *Lactobacillus plantarum*, which is present in kefir, exhibits an
343 antioxidant effects by synthesizing enzymes such as peroxidase and superoxide dismutase,
344 among others (Wei Tang et al. 2018).

345 Limited evidence of the hypocholesterolemic effect of kefir in experimental animal models
346 has been observed (Huang et al. 2013), and this effect has not been described in humans. The
347 hypocholesterolemic effect of kefir could occur because its high levels of probiotics inhibit
348 cholesterol absorption in the small intestine, as demonstrated in different animal models and
349 bacterial cells (Pimenta et al. 2018). Additionally, to explain the effect of kefir on cholesterol
350 reduction, another mechanism has also been proposed due to the presence of a specific yeast
351 strain that exerts hydrolase action in bile salts; this mechanism involves the deconjugation of
352 bile acids and their elimination via feces. The resulting increase in the demand for cholesterol
353 for the synthesis of bile salts induces a hypocholesterolemic effect (Pimenta et al. 2018).

354 Similarly, in a spontaneously hypertensive animal model, kefir consumption exerted an
355 antihypertensive effect that appears to be mediated by two mechanisms: a) inhibition of the
356 angiotensin-converting enzyme and b) the effect of probiotics in preventing or reversing
357 dysbiotic bowel, which results in proinflammatory and pro-oxidant phenomena (Pimenta et al.
358 2018).

359 **Other probiotic foods and cardiometabolic risk factors**

360 Few results regarding other food sources of probiotics, such as kimchi and fermented
361 soybeans, have been reported due the small number of RCTs that have been conducted; as a
362 result, no clear conclusions can be drawn.

363 Kimchi is a traditional Korean food that consists of a blend of fermented vegetables, such as
364 Chinese cabbage, turnips and others. The effects of kimchi on cardiometabolic factors have

365 been evaluated in a few RCTs (An et al. 2013; Eun Kyoung Kim et al. 2011). One study
366 investigated 21 participants with prediabetes who consumed either fresh (1-day-old) or
367 fermented (10-day-old) kimchi, and after 4-week washout period, the participants switched to
368 the other type of kimchi and consumed the new type for the next 8 weeks (An et al. 2013).
369 The results revealed that kimchi had beneficial effects on factors related to glucose
370 metabolism, such as reductions in glycosylated hemoglobin, homeostatic model assessment
371 for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) and fasting insulin, and anthropometric factors, such as
372 reductions in body weight, body mass index and waist circumference, in participants with
373 prediabetes (An et al. 2013). In addition, fermented kimchi exerts additional effects for
374 reducing hypertension and resistance/insulin sensitivity in prediabetic participants (An et al.
375 2013). Similarly, another RCT examined the effects of kimchi consumption by 22 overweight
376 and obese patients with a body mass index ≥ 25 kg/m² who were randomly assigned to two 4-
377 week diet phases separated by a 2-week washout period. During each diet phase, the subjects
378 consumed either fresh or fermented kimchi for 4 weeks. In these overweight or obese patients,
379 fermented kimchi consumption significantly decreased hypertension and insulin resistance
380 and improved glucose tolerance compared with the consumption of fresh kimchi (Eun
381 Kyoung Kim et al. 2011). Moreover, fermented kimchi consumption for 4 weeks resulted in
382 significant decreases in abdominal obesity, basal glycemia, total cholesterol, and hypertension
383 compared with the consumption of fresh kimchi (Eun Kyoung Kim et al. 2011).
384 However, our literature review did not identify any PCSs examining the relationship between
385 kimchi consumption and cardiometabolic risk factors. In relation to the consumption of
386 fermented soy products, a PCS of a Japanese cohort of 926 men and 3,239 women aged 40 to
387 69 years with normotension showed an inverse association between the intake of fermented
388 soy products and the development of hypertension but no association between the
389 consumption of unfermented soy foods and hypertension (Nozue et al. 2017). A possible

390 mechanism of action is the rich concentration of bioactive peptides that were generated during
391 the fermentation of soy, which can mediate a vasodilator effect on the vascular wall and
392 inhibit the angiotensin-converting enzyme (Wang et al. 2017).

393 Additionally, further research is urgently needed to compare the impact of low-fat dairy with
394 that of regular-and high-fat dairy on cardiovascular-related clinical outcomes and to
395 harmonize the findings with the current recommendations to consume low-fat dairy (Carson
396 et al. 2019). For example, the most recent dietary recommendations for reducing human blood
397 cholesterol emphasize the consumption of fruits, vegetables, whole grains, low-fat or fat-free
398 dairy products, lean protein sources, nuts, seeds, and liquid vegetable oils. Thus, the 2019
399 American Heart Association guideline continue to recommend the consumption of low-fat or
400 free-fat foods but these recommendations might need to be reconsidered in light of new
401 information (Carson 2019).

402 **Mechanisms of action of the effects of FD foods on cardiometabolic risk factors**

403 The effects of FD consumption are supported by an RCT involving overweight or obese
404 patients, which showed that the consumption of FD foods in the context of a high-dairy-fat
405 diet induced a reduction in inflammatory biomarkers, such as the cytokine IL-6, compared
406 with the consumption of non-FD foods (Nestel et al. 2013). In addition, the same RCT
407 revealed that compared with the consumption of a low-dairy-fat diet, the intake of FD
408 products resulted in significantly lower concentrations of two classes of plasmogenic lipids
409 and increased the oxidizability of glycerophospholipids (Nestel et al. 2013). In contrast, the
410 fermentation of dairy products produces bioactive peptides that are encrypted in milk proteins
411 and released by the proteolytic activity of lactic acid, and they exhibit antihypertensive
412 properties (Tamang et al. 2016) given their ability to inhibit the angiotensin enzyme (Rai et al.
413 2017). Previous studies have identified more than 50 peptide sequences derived from casein
414 particularly the tripeptides isoleucine-proline-proline and valine-proline-proline, which appear

415 to be responsible for the detected antihypertensive properties (Nagpal et al. 2011). Moreover,
416 yogurt naturally includes lactic acid bacteria with probiotic (JAS 2014) effects; as a result, the
417 intake of yogurt by obese and diabetic patients promotes favorable changes in the gut
418 microbiota, which results in decreases in the glycemic response and insulin resistance (JAS
419 2014). Another consequence of the consumption of yogurt is an increase in the concentration
420 of glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1), which exerts an anorexigenic effect and might play a role
421 in the potential protective effects of yogurt on obesity and diabetes (Yadav et al. 2013).

422 Although the mechanisms explaining the beneficial effects of yogurt consumption are
423 unknown, they are attributed to a greater bioavailability of amino acids and insulinotropic
424 peptides and to the bacterial biosynthesis of vitamins, particularly vitamin K2, with proposed
425 activities such as improved insulin sensitivity through the vitamin K-dependent-protein
426 osteocalcin, anti-inflammatory properties, and lipid-lowering effects (Gille et al. 2018; Li et
427 al. 2018). A novel strategy for the maintenance of gut health has been developed, and this
428 strategy involves modifying the microbiome via a postbiotic treatment consisting of metabolic
429 products secreted by live bacteria or released after bacterial lysis, modulating the microbiome
430 to orchestrate host-microbiome interactions, and manipulating the microbiome using phage
431 therapy (Zmora et al. 2016). The postbiotic effects might contribute to the improvement of
432 host health by exerting specific physiological effects, even though the exact mechanisms have
433 not been fully elucidated (Aguilar-Toalá et al. 2018). The practice of phage therapy, which
434 involves the use of bacterial viruses (phages) or the treatment of bacterial infections, has
435 existed for almost a century. Moreover, the combination of phages, phage-derived lytic
436 proteins and/or antibiotics will be necessary to address growing problems, such as antibiotic-
437 resistant infections (Lin et al. 2017).

438 **Limitations**

439 As is known and not unimportant, some factors, such as the number and/or type of
440 participants, years of follow-up, and source of dietary information, identified in the results of
441 PCSs can determine the relationship between dairy foods and cardiometabolic risk factors
442 or/and mortality. The authors have considered the type of study used to draw the conclusions,
443 and a summary of this information is provided in Table 1.

444 RCTs are needed to draw a conclusion regarding the effects of probiotics provided by
445 fermented foods on the modification of the main specific cardiometabolic risk factors (total
446 cholesterol, LDL-C, glycemia, body weight and hypertension) (Rondanelli et al. 2017). Based
447 on the available findings, further studies are needed to develop specific recommendations
448 regarding the consumption of FD products and to determine their role in the prevention of
449 cardiometabolic diseases.

450 **Conclusions**

451 In conclusion, the total consumption of FD seems to be associated with a lower risk of
452 developing stroke and CVD, whereas the consumption of yogurt appears to be associated with
453 a lower risk of developing T2D. However, there is insufficient evidence supporting a
454 protective relationship between FD or cheese consumption and MetS. In addition, available
455 information regarding the association of FD, cheese and yogurt with hypertension is scarce
456 and further evidence needs to be accumulated. Moreover, the consumption of cured cheeses
457 by hypertensive patients should be limited due to their high sodium contents. However, the
458 results of the described PCSs reveal that the intake of fermented foods that contain probiotics,
459 particularly yogurt and cheese (of an undetermined type), open up new opportunities for the
460 management of cardiometabolic risk factors.

461 **Acknowledgments**

462 J.C has a contract with Eurecat, Centre Tecnològic de Catalunya, Unitat de Nutrició i Salut,
463 Reus, Spain, and A.P. has a contract with Torres Quevedo (Subprograma Estatal de

464 Incorporación, Plan Estatal de Investigación Científica y Técnica y de Innovación). The
 465 NFOC-Salut group is a consolidated research group of Generalitat de Catalunya, Spain (2017
 466 SGR522).

467 **Declaration of interest statement**

468 No potential conflict of interest is reported by the authors.

469

Table 1. Levels of evidence of fermented dairy products and cardiometabolic risk factors.

Total Fermented dairy	Level of Evidence	Class
Total fermented dairy intake can reduce cardiovascular disease risk	II	A
Total fermented dairy intake can reduce stroke risk	II	A
Total fermented dairy intake has no relationship with hypertension risk	II	A
Total fermented dairy intake has a neutral relationship with metabolic syndrome risk	II	A
Cheese	Level of Evidence	Class
Cheese intake can reduce cardiovascular disease risk	II	A
Cheese intake can reduce stroke risk	II	A
Cheese intake have no relationship with metabolic syndrome risk	II	B
Cheese intake can reduce type 2 diabetes risk	II	B
Yogurt	Level of Evidence	Class
Yogurt intake have a neutral relationship with cardiovascular disease risk	II	A
Yogurt intake have a neutral relationship with stroke risk	II	B
Yogurt intake can reduce hypertension risk	II	B
Yogurt intake can reduce metabolic syndrome risk	II	B
Yogurt intake can reduce type 2 diabetes risk	II	A

IIA, systematic reviews or meta-analysis of cohort studies; IIB, individual cohort study.

Different levels of evidence-based medicine applied in this article is based from the Oxford Centre for Evidence-based Medicine – Levels of Evidence (March 2009)(Jeremy Howick 2009).

470

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